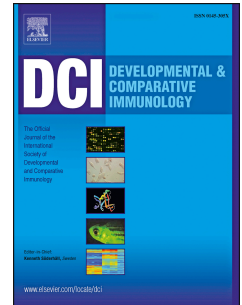


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Different origins of paralogues of salmonid TNFR1 and TNFR2: characterisation and expression analysis of four TNF receptor genes in rainbow trout *Oncorhynchus mykiss*

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The nucleotide sequence data will appear in the EMBL/DDBJ/GenBank nucleotide sequence database under the following accession numbers: HE717002 (TNFR1a), HE717003 (TNFR1b), HE717004 (TNFR2a) and HE717005 (TNFR2b).

Abstract

Mammalian TNFR1 and TNFR2 bind TNF α and TNF β , and provide key communication signals to a variety of cell types during development and immune responses that are crucial for cell survival, proliferation and apoptosis. In teleost fish TNF β is absent but TNF α has been expanded by the third whole genome duplication (3R WGD) and again by a 4R WGD in some lineages, leading to the four TNF α paralogues known in salmonids. Two paralogues for each of TNFR1 and TNFR2 have been cloned in rainbow trout in this study and are present in other salmonid genomes. Whilst the TNFR2 paralogues were generated via the 4R salmonid WGD, the TNFR1 paralogues arose from a local en bloc duplication. Functional diversification of TNFR paralogues was evidenced by differential gene expression and modulation, upstream ATGs affecting translation, ATTTA motifs in the 3'-UTR regulating mRNA stability, and post-translational modification by N-glycosylation. Trout TNFR are highly expressed in immune tissues/organs, and other tissues, in a gene- and tissue-specific manner. Furthermore, their expression is differentially modulated by PAMPs and cytokines in a cell type- and stimulant-specific manner. Such findings suggest an important role of the TNF/TNFR axis in the immune response and other physiological processes in fish.

Key words

Rainbow trout, TNFR1, TNFR2, paralogues, en bloc duplication, gene expression

1. Introduction

Tumor necrosis factor (TNF) receptor-1 (TNFR1) and TNFR2 are members of the TNF receptor superfamily (TNFRSF) that bind both TNF α and TNF β , which belong to TNF superfamily (TNFSF). The TNFSF and TNFRSF provide key communication signals between a variety of cell types during development and immune responses, and have been implicated in many inflammatory and autoimmune diseases (Dostert et al., 2019). In humans, 19 TNFSF ligands and 29 TNFRSF receptors have been characterised to date (Collette et al., 2003).

The TNFSF members, such as TNF α (aka “TNFSF2”), are type II transmembrane (TM) proteins but can be secreted upon proteolytic cleavage by metalloproteases or furin proteases (Magis et al., 2010). All family members possess a TNF homology domain (THD) in the C terminal extracellular region that assemble into a non-covalent trimer essential for signalling by TNFSF members (Banner et al., 1993). Both membrane and soluble TNF α are bioactive through binding to TNFR1 and TNFR2 and play an important role in immune responses, inflammation, cell proliferation, differentiation, necrosis and apoptosis. TNF β (aka “Lymphotoxin- α or LT α ” and “TNFSF1”) is the closest family member of TNF α in mammals. It can be secreted as a soluble homotrimer and binds to TNFR1 and TNFR2 with high affinity (Koroleva et al., 2018).

The TNFRSF receptors, such as TNFR1 (aka “TNFRSF1A”) and TNFR2 (aka “TNFRSF1B”) are type I TM receptors. The common feature of TNFRSF is the presence of relatively short (30–40 residues) cysteine-rich domains (CRD) located in the ectodomain, which are involved in interaction with the THD of TNFSF ligands (Dostert et al., 2019). The extracellular regions of TNFR1 and TNFR2 are structurally highly homologous and include four CRDs, each of which contains six cysteines. There is no significant homology in the intracellular region between TNFR1 and TNFR2, indicating that these receptors activate distinct signaling pathways (Puimege et al., 2014). TNFR1 contains a death domain (DD) in the cytoplasmic tail that recruits the TNFR1-associated DD protein (TRADD) and promotes cell death and inflammation. In contrast, TNFR2 does not have an intracellular DD and instead recruits the TNFR-associated factor (TRAF) 1 and TRAF2 proteins and favours cellular survival and tissue regeneration (Holbrook et al., 2019). Although both TNF α and TNF β can bind and signal through TNFR1 and TNFR2, knock-out mouse mutants for each ligand have different phenotypes, partially due to differential expression of the ligands (Etemadi et al., 2013). TNF α is mainly produced by activated monocytes/macrophages but can also be produced by mast cells, T and B lymphocytes, natural killer (NK) cells, neutrophils, endothelial cells, smooth and cardiac muscle cells, fibroblasts and osteoclasts, whereas TNF β is secreted by activated T cells and resting B cells (Bradley, 2008).

The receptors of TNF are also differentially expressed and modulated. TNFR1 is ubiquitously expressed on nearly all cells in the body and the promoter of TNFR1 is active constitutively. The expression of TNFR2, on the other hand, is inducible and expressed exclusively in immune cells, endothelial cells and some neuronal populations (Puimege et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2018). The expression levels of TNFR proteins can be regulated by cytokines, such as interferons (IFN) and TNF itself (Aggarwal et al., 1985; Tsujimoto et al., 1986; Bloksma et al., 1983). Consequently, the activation from TNFR1 is responsible for a large number of inflammatory responses classically attributed to TNF α , although TNFR2 signalling has been reported to be important for proliferation of lymphoid cells and may be the preferential receptor for membrane TNF α (Grell et al., 1995).

The TNFSF/TNFRSF have a deep evolutionary origin that precedes the appearance of vertebrates and the adaptive immune system (Wiens and Glenney, 2011). They have been discovered in invertebrates including porifera (Pozzolini et al., 2016), molluscs (De Zoysa et al., 2009), crustaceans (Mekata et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2012) and insects (Kauppila et al., 2003), and expanded in vertebrates (Quistad and Traylor-Knowles, 2016). Genes coding for TNFSF members have also been studied in various fish species (Glenney and Wiens, 2007). TNF α was one of the first cytokines characterized within teleosts, initially isolated from Japanese flounder *Paralichthys olivaceus* (Hirono et al., 2000) and rainbow trout *Oncorhynchus mykiss* (Laing et al., 2001). Since then, it has been identified in a wide range of fish species. However, no orthologues of mammalian TNF β has been identified in teleosts (Secombes et al., 2016; Maeda et al., 2018). Interestingly, two TNF α genes have been found in many teleost fish, eg. in bluefin tuna *Thunnus orientalis* (Kadowaki et al., 2009), orange-spotted grouper *Epinephelus coioides* (Lam et al., 2011), zebrafish *Danio rerio* and medaka *Oryzias latipes* (Kinoshita et al., 2014), goldfish *Carassius carassius* (Kajungiro et al., 2015) and meagre *Argyrosomus regius* (Milne et al., 2017), with even more TNF α genes identified in common carp *Cyprinus carpio* L. (Savan and Sakai, 2004) and salmonids (Hong et al., 2013). The paralogues reside in syntenically conserved regions on different chromosomes indicating they arose from WGD events known to have happened at the base of the teleosts (3R WGD) and again in the cyprinid and salmonid lineages (4R WGD) (Kinoshita et al., 2014; Berthelot et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2014).

In comparison, the receptors for TNFSF are less known in fish. Only a single TNFR1 and TNFR2 have been isolated in species such as Japanese flounder, goldfish and zebrafish (Park et al., 2003; Eimon et al., 2006; Grayfer and Belosevic, 2009). The Japanese flounder TNFR1 and TNFR2 share 35-40% identities to their mammalian counterparts (Park et al., 2003). The flounder TNFR1 was constitutively expressed in most organs whilst the TNFR2 gene was constitutively expressed in only immune organs (kidney, spleen and gills). In peripheral blood lymphocytes flounder TNFR1 and TNFR2 were differentially modulated by pathogen associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) and

activated by concanavalin A and phorbol myristate acetate (Park et al., 2003). In goldfish monocytes IFN γ upregulated the expression of both TNFR1 and TNFR2, whereas TNF α up-regulated TNFR2 but down-regulated TNFR1 (Grayfer and Belosevic, 2009). Whilst the bioactivity of TNF α has been described in rainbow trout (Hong et al., 2013), the receptors for TNF α have still to be characterised in salmonids.

In this study, two paralogues sharing high aa identity for TNFR1 and two for TNFR2 have been characterised in rainbow trout. Whilst the TNFR2 paralogues arose from the salmonid 4R WGD, the TNFR1 paralogues were generated by a local *en bloc* duplication. Their expression was comparatively examined by real-time PCR and it was found that the paralogues are differentially expressed *in vivo* in tissues from healthy fish and *in vitro* in cell lines stimulated with PAMPs (LPS and poly I:C) and recombinant cytokines (IFN γ and TNF α).

2. Methods and Materials

2.1. Fish

Rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*), weighing approximately 100 g, were purchased from the Mill of Elrich Trout Fishery (Aberdeenshire, UK) and maintained in 1-m-diameter aerated fibreglass tanks supplied with a continuous flow of recirculating freshwater at 15 ± 1 °C. Fish were fed twice daily on standard commercial pellets (EWOS), and maintained as described previously (Wangkahart et al., 2019).

2.2 Cloning of trout TNF receptors.

The cloning of TNFR was performed in 2013 when no salmonid genomic resource was available. Blast (the basic local alignment search tool, Altschul et al., 1990) search was performed at NCBI (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>) using mammalian TNFR1 and TNFR2 protein sequences, and resulted in the identification of candidate ESTs for TNFR1A (EZ763921), TNFR1B (EZ776440), TNFR2A (EZ832094) and TNFR2B (BX870761). Primers (Table 1) were designed within the 5'-untranslated region (UTR) of these ESTs and used for 3'-RACE as described previously (Wang and Secombes, 2003; Wang et al., 2008), using 3'-RACE-ready cDNA samples prepared from head kidney macrophages. The cloning, sequencing and protein sequence analysis was as described previously (Hong et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2018). The programs used included Clustal Omega (Sievers et al., 2011) for multiple sequence alignment, MatGAT program (V2.02, Campanella et al., 2003) for global sequence comparisons, SMART7 (Letunic et al., 2012) for domain prediction, MEGA7 (Kumar et al., 2016) for phylogenetic tree analysis and Genomicus (Louis et al., 2013) for synteny analysis.

2.3 RT-qPCR analysis of gene expression

The primers (Table 1) for real time PCR quantification of gene expression were designed so that at least one primer crossed an intron to prevent amplification of genomic DNA. A serially diluted common reference containing equal molar amounts of purified PCR products of trout TNFR1 and TNFR2 genes and the house-keeping gene EF-1 α was used for quantification throughout. The real-time PCR quantification was as described previously, performed using a Lightcycler 480 system (Roche) (Wang et al., 2011a).

2.4 Tissue distribution of trout TNFR1 and TNFR2 transcripts

Six healthy rainbow trout (~ 100 g) were killed and seventeen tissues (blood, gills, thymus, scales,

skin, muscle, adipose tissue, liver, spleen, gonad, head kidney, caudal kidney, intestine, heart, tail fins, adipose fin, and brain) were collected and homogenised in TRI reagent (Sigma, UK). The RNA preparation and cDNA synthesis were as described previously (Wang et al., 2011a). The expression level of each gene in different tissues was normalized to the expression of EF-1 α and expressed as arbitrary units.

2.5. Modulation of expression of TNFR1 and 2 in four trout cell lines.

Four trout cell lines, a mononuclear/macrophage-like cell line RTS-11 from spleen (Ganassin and Bols, 1998), an epithelial cell line from liver (Lee et al., 1993), and fibroid cell lines RTG-2 from gonad (Wolf and Quimby, 1962) and RTGill from gills (Schirmer et al., 1998) were used in this study. The cell culture conditions were as described previously (Wang et al. 2011b). All cells were passaged 1 day before stimulation in L-15 medium (Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% FCS and antibiotics (100 units/ml penicillin, 100 μ g/ml streptomycin) at a concentration of $3\text{--}5 \times 10^5$ cells/ml. The cells were stimulated by direct addition of stimulants that were dissolved in cell culture medium. Three stimulants, *E. coli* LPS (25 μ g/ml, from strain 055:B5, Sigma), polyinosinic:polycytidylic acid (poly I:C, 50 μ g/ml, Sigma), recombinant interferon (IFN)- γ (20 ng/ml, Wang et al., 2011b) or medium alone as control, were used and the cells incubated for 4, 8 and 24 h. The concentrations chosen for each stimulant were deemed optimal from previous studies (Wang et al. 2011b). RTS-11 cells were also stimulated with 10 ng/ml of recombinant TNF α 3 (Hong et al., 2013) for 4, 8, 24, 48 and 72 h or storage buffer as a control. Four replicates (four flasks of cells) were used for each treatment, with the treatments terminated by dissolving the cells in TRI reagent (Sigma). The real-time RT-qPCR quantification of gene expression was as above. The fold change was calculated as the average expression level of stimulated samples divided by that of the time matched controls.

2.7. Statistical analysis

Real-time PCR data were analysed using the SPSS Statistics package 24.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois) as described previously (Wang et al., 2011a). One way-analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the LSD post hoc test were used to analyze expression data in Figs. 8-10, with $P < 0.05$ between treatment and control groups considered significant. Since tissue expression consisted of sample sets from six individual fish, a Paired-Sample T-test was applied (Fig. 6).

3. Results

3.1 Cloning and sequence analysis of trout TNFR1 and TNFR2 paralogues

The cDNA sequences of the two TNFR1 paralogues, TNFR1a and TNFR1b, are 3072 and 2688 bp and encode for 403 and 397 aa, respectively (**Figs. S1-2, Table 2**). There are two upstream ATGs in the 5'-UTR, and mRNA instability motifs (ATTTA, 1 for TNFR1a and 4 for TNFR1b) in the 3'-UTR suggesting that they may be subject to post-transcriptional and translational regulation. The predicted aa sequences of both cDNA sequences have a signal peptide, an extracellular region containing 4 CRDs each with six conserved cysteine residues, a TM domain, and an intracellular DD domain. All these characteristics are well conserved across TNFR1 molecules from other fish species (Atlantic salmon, northern pike, channel catfish and Japanese flounder) and mammals (humans and mice) (**Fig. 1**). There are two potential N-glycosylation sites present in trout TNFR1a and only one in TNFR1b that were conserved in salmon counterparts. The first site was found in CRD1 of salmonids TNFR1s that was also found in mammalian TNFR1s. The other site of salmonid TNFR1 was in CRD4 with an N-glycosylation site also found in pike and catfish in the same domain (**Fig. 1**). The major difference between fish and mammalian TNFR1 was an insertion of low complexity region rich in P/S/T residues between the TM and DD domains (**Fig. 1**).

The cDNA sequences of the two trout TNFR2 paralogues, TNFR2a and TNFR2b, are 1814 and 2403 bp that encode for 455 and 463 aa, respectively (**Figs. S3-4, Table 2**). There are 2 ATTTA motifs in the 3'-UTR of TNFR2b but none in TNFR2a. The predicted aa sequences of both cDNA sequences have a signal peptide, an extracellular region containing 4 CRDs, a TM domain, and an intracellular domain. CRD1-3 possess six cysteine residues but CRD4 only four. All these characteristics are well conserved across TNFR2 molecules from other fish species and mammals (**Fig. 2**). There are three potential N-glycosylation sites present in trout TNFR2a and two in TNFR2b. The first site was found in CRD1 of trout TNFR2 that was conserved in salmon TNFR2b, as well as flounder and tilapia TNFR2. The other trout sites were in CRD4 with at least one N-glycosylation site also found in other vertebrate TNFR2 molecules in the same domain except salmon TNFR2b (**Fig. 2**).

The predicted aa sequences of the two trout TNFR1 paralogues share 80.2% aa identity (**Table 2**). The trout and salmon orthologues shared higher aa identities (ie. 85.5% for TNFR1a and 93.0% for TNFR1b) than paralogues between and within species (79.8-82.4%). All salmonid TNFR1 molecules shared similar aa identities/similarities to TNFR1 from other fish species and mammals (**Table S1**). The translation of the two trout TNFR2 paralogues share 63.6% aa identity (**Table 2**). The trout and salmon orthologues again shared higher aa identities (ie. 91.2% for TNFR2a and 87.2% for TNFR2b) than paralogues between and within species (59.6-64.4%). All salmonid TNFR2 molecules shared

similar aa identities/similarities to TNFR2 from other fish species and mammals (**Table S2**).

3.2 Bioinformatics analysis of TNFR1 and TNFR2

To confirm the membership of the trout genes cloned in this study in the TNFRSF, a phylogenetic tree was constructed using amino acid multiple alignments of vertebrate TNFR1, TNFR2, and other closely related tetrapod TNFRSF members (TNFR3, 5, 10 and 14) sharing similar domain structure (Magis et al., 2012). Trout TNFR1 and TNFR2 grouped with their counterparts from other fish species and tetrapods with high bootstrap support (99% for TNFR1 and 96% for TNFR2) and these clades were separated from other closely related TNFRSF members (**Fig. 3**), confirming their identities. The topology of salmonid TNFR1 and pike (a close relative of salmonids before the salmonid 4R WGD) TNFR1 represents a classical tree topology recapturing true species relationships after a WGD (Macqueen and Johnston, 2014). The salmonid and pike TNFR2 also form an independent clade but with pike TNFR2 set between salmonid TNFR2a and TNFR2b (**Fig. 3**). In both cases it is possible to suggest that the salmonid paralogues arose from the salmonid 4R WGD.

To further confirm their identities, we performed a synteny analysis with the Genomicus program using medaka TNFR1 and TNFR2 as references. Both vertebrate TNFR1 and TNFR2 loci were well conserved in medaka, tetraodon, zebrafish, chicken, humans and mice as shown in **Fig. S5**, suggesting a true orthologous relationship.

The pike and salmonid genomes are not well annotated in the current Genomicus database. Therefore, we performed a manual synteny analysis with information extracted from the updated genomic sequences from NCBI. Pike TNFR1 was found in linkage group (LG)20, and both trout TNFR1a and TNFR1b on Ch3 (**Fig. 4A**). Most of the genes in the pike TNFR1 locus were found present in trout with a block of genes (dedd2 to TNFR1) duplicated adjacently in trout Ch3. The duplicated blocs retained most gene present in pike and have an additional CD27 gene in both blocs (**Fig. 4A**), suggesting this gene was present before the en bloc duplication. Similarly, the salmon TNFR1a and TNFR1b were also found in the syntenic region on Ch2 (NC_027301), suggesting that the salmonid TNFR1 paralogues arose from a local en bloc duplication.

Pike TNFR2 was found in LG17, and trout TNFR2a and TNFR2b in Ch17 and Ch7, respectively. The TNFR2 loci on pike LG17, trout Ch17 and Ch7 were well conserved (**Fig. 4B**). Similarly, salmon TNFR2a and TNFR2b were also found in a syntenic region on Ch12 (NC_027311) and Ch22 (NC_027321), respectively. These syntenic relationships confirm that the salmonid TNFR2 paralogues indeed arose from the salmonid 4R WGD.

3.3 Gene organization analysis of TNFR1 and TNFR2

Both TNFR1 and TNFR2 in humans and chicken have a 10 exon/9 intron gene organization with all 10 exons coding, and identical intron phases (**Fig. 5**). Both trout TNFR1 paralogues, and flounder TNFR1 also have a 10 exon/9 intron structure. However, there is 1 non-coding exon in the 5'-UTR and only 9 coding exons (**Fig. 5A**). Fish TNFR1 genes has a large exon 8 that is equivalent to exons 7 and 8 in human and chicken TNFR1 possibly caused by intron insertion in tetrapods or intron lose in fish. The human TNFR1 gene has a large exon 9 that contributes to the insertion of the low complexity region between TM and DD domains in the TNFR1 multiple alignment (**Fig. 1**). Fish TNFR2 genes had a similar gene organization to that of tetrapods but again had one less coding exon. The coding region of the last exon in fish was large and equivalent to that of exons 9 and 10 in tetrapods, possibly caused by intron insertion in tetrapods or intron lose in fish (**Fig. 5B**).

3.4. Tissue distribution of the expression of trout TNFR1 and TNFR2 transcripts

Constitutive expression of the four TNF receptor genes was detectable in all seventeen tissues examined (**Fig. 6**). The highest expression of TNFR1a was in spleen and lowest in liver. The highest expression of TNFR1b was also found in spleen as well as heart, and the lowest in liver and tail fins (**Fig. 6**). The spleen, gills, brain, adipose tissue and tail fins expressed higher levels of TNFR1a than TNFR1b. In contrast, heart, muscle and blood expressed higher levels of TNFR1b than TNFR1a (**Fig. 6**).

The highest expression of TNFR2a was in spleen and heart, and the lowest in liver, tail fins and scales. The highest expression of TNFR2b was also found in spleen and heart, in addition to caudal kidney, and the lowest in blood. The two TNFR2 paralogues were differentially expression in all the tissues except for gills, brain, adipose tissue, scales and skin (**Fig. 6**).

Overall, trout TNF receptor genes were differentially expressed in a tissue-dependent manner, and the expression of TNFR1 genes was higher than that of TNFR2 genes in all tissues tested, by greater than ten-fold in most cases. The immune tissues, eg. spleen, gills and head kidney, are among those that highly expressed all the receptors. The high-level expression of TNFR2 paralogues in non-immune tissues/organs, including heart, caudal kidney, gonad and muscle was also noteworthy.

3.5. Differential expression of trout TNFR1 and TNFR2 paralogues in four cell lines

The TNF receptor gene were also found differentially expression in trout cell lines (**Fig. S6**). The expression of TNFR1 paralogues was higher than that of TNFR2 paralogues in all the four cell lines studied. The macrophage-like cell line RTS-11 expressed the highest levels of all the receptors (**Fig. S6**).

3.6. Modulation of the expression of TNFR1 and TNFR2 paralogues in four trout cell lines.

In epithelial cell lines RTL and RTGill, the expression of TNFR1 paralogues was high constitutively but was refractory to stimulation with LPS, poly I:C and IFN γ (**Fig. 7**). TNFR2a expression was up-regulated by IFN γ from 4 h to 24 h, and by polyI:C from 8 h to 24 h but was refractory to LPS. Meanwhile, TNFR2b expression was upregulated only by poly I:C in RTGill cells at 24 h, but down-regulated by IFN γ in RTL at 24 h (**Fig. 7**). In the fibroblast like RTG-2 cells, IFN γ up-regulated TNFR1a and TNFR1b expression at 4h and 8 h, and TNFR2a expression from 4 h to 24 h, but decreased TNFR2b expression at 24 h. Poly I:C also upregulated TNFR1a and TNFR1b expression at 8 h only, and TNFR2a expression at 8h and 24 h, but had no effects on TNFR2b expression. LPS moderately up-regulated TNFR2a expression at 4 h but had no effects on the expression of other TNF receptor genes in this cell line (**Fig. 7**). In RTS-11 cells, IFN γ rapidly up-regulated TNFR1a and TNFR1b expression at 4 h, and TNFR2a expression from 4h to 24 h, but decreased the expression of TNFR1 paralogues at 24 h, and had no effect on TNFR2b expression. Poly I:C up-regulated TNFR2b expression at 4 h only and had no effects on the expression of other genes. LPS increased the expression of TNFR1b and TNFR2b at 4 h only and had no effects on the expression of TNFR1a and TNFR2a (**Fig. 7**).

In conclusion, the expression of TNF receptor genes can be modulated in a cell line-, gene- and stimulant-dependent manner. TNFR1 paralogues are highly expressed constitutively but less responsive to stimulation (less than 10-fold increase). In contrast, TNFR2a expression was low constitutively but highly inducible. IFN γ is a potent stimulant of TNFR expression with rapid kinetics of induction compared to poly I:C. LPS only had minor effects on TNFR expression (**Fig. 7**).

3.7. Modulation of the expression of TNFR1 and TNFR2 paralogues by recombinant TNF α

RTS-11 cells express the highest level of TNFR1 and TNFR2 genes and are known to be responsive to TNF α stimulation (Hong et al., 2013). Therefore, we examined the receptor expression after TNF α treatment of RTS-11 cells over a time course from 4 h to 72 h. Significant up-regulation of gene expression was seen with TNFR1a from 8-48 h, TNFR1b at 4 h, 24 h and 48h, and TNFR2a from 4-48 h (**Fig. 8**). The up-regulated expression was absent by 72 h. TNFR2b expression was refractory at all time-points (**Fig. 8**).

4. Discussion

In this study, two highly identical paralogues of TNFR1 and TNFR2 have been cloned in rainbow trout. Their identities were confirmed in terms of the characteristic domain structure of the protein encoded, by phylogenetic tree analysis, and by conserved synteny. Many highly identical immune genes, eg. TNF α , IL-1 β , IL-12 family members and SOCS gene family members, are present in salmonids that originate from the salmonid 4R WGD (Hong et al., 2013; Husain et al., 2014; Wang and Husain, 2014; Wang et al., 2019). This also appears to be the case for the two TNFR2 paralogues. However, to our surprise, the two trout TNFR1 paralogues arose from a local en bloc duplication that has also happened in other salmonids such as Atlantic salmon. The salmonid en bloc duplicated TNFR1 paralogues share higher identities at the protein level (eg. 80.2% in trout) compared to the 4R WGD originated TNFR2 paralogues (eg. 63.6% in trout). This reveals that both duplicated TNFR2 loci were retained after the 4R WGD but one copy of the duplicated TNFR1 locus was lost. The retained TNFR1 copy later duplicated en bloc in an ancestral salmonid. The mechanisms driving this en bloc gene duplication and retention is unknown but could be due to gene balance, whereby genes in the same complex pathway are preferentially co-retained after WGDs to avoid architectural disruption or metabolic imbalance (Pires and Conant, 2016). Two types of TNF α , the ligand binding TNFR1 and TNFR2, are present in 3R teleosts, and these were duplicated again by the salmonid 4R WGD and retained as four paralogues in salmonids (Hong et al., 2013; and unpublished data). Mammalian TNF (including TNF α and TNF β) signal through TNFR1 to promote mainly inflammation and apoptosis, whilst TNFR2 signaling activates the pro-survival PI3K-Akt/PKB pathway and sustains regulatory T cell function (Pegoretti et al., 2018). Dysfunction of either TNF, TNFR1 or TNFR2 hampers immune defence or promotes inflammatory and autoimmune diseases (Puimege et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2018). The en bloc duplication of TNFR1 in salmonids may represent a kind of convergent evolutionary mechanism to produce multiple copies of TNFR1 to balance the multiple copies of TNF α and TNFR2 generated by WGD.

Gene duplication is a major driver of functional divergence. The duplicated genes are preserved through functional diversification: neofunctionalization, subfunctionalization, or both (Teufel et al., 2019). The functional divergence can be embodied by changes in the promoter that regulate the expression, or changes with effects on regulation at post-transcriptional, translational and post-translational levels, and changes in the protein sequence that directly affect its function. The regulation of mRNA stability is important for the control of gene expression. AU rich elements, such as AUUUA motifs (ATTTA in cDNA sequence) are important cis-acting sequences in the 3'-UTRs of mRNAs encoding cytokines and other transiently expressed genes that promote mRNA degradation

(Mino and Takeuchi, 2018). Four ATTTA motifs are present in the 3'-UTR of TNFR1b but only two in TNFR1a and TNFR2b, with none in TNFR2a. These differences may suggest that the TNFR1 and TNFR2 paralogues differ in post-transcriptional regulation.

Translation initiation is the rate-limiting step in mRNA translation and is central to translational regulation. Upstream ATG/open reading frames (uORFs) in the 5'-UTR are regulatory elements that modulate the translation initiation rate of the downstream ORF by sequestering ribosomes (Zhang et al., 2019). Two upstream ATG are present in TNFR1 paralogues and one in TNFR2b, suggesting that trout TNFR genes may subject to translational regulation.

N-Glycosylation is a co- and post-translational modification that is critical for the regulation of the biophysical properties and biological activities of diverse proteins (Zacchi et al., 2016). Mammalian TNFR1 can be modified by N-glycosylation that could facilitate its capability of binding to TNF α and signalling (Han et al., 2015). 1-3 potential N-glycosylation sites are found mainly present in CRD1 and CRD4 in different trout TNFR molecules. Although the implication of N-glycosylation remains to be determined in fish, the different potential of N-glycosylation of TNFR1 and TNFR2 paralogues may suggest divergence of post-translational regulation.

Another interesting finding in this study is the difference of gene organisation between tetrapod and teleost TNFR1 and TNFR2 orthologues. Teleost fish TNFR1 genes have an extra exon in the 5'UTR. In addition, both teleost TNFR1 and TNFR2 possess one fewer coding exon than their tetrapod orthologues and a large coding exon/region that equates to two exons in tetrapods. Whether this change was due to intron loss in teleosts or intron insertion in tetrapods is not possible to answer from this study. Exon insertion in the 5'-UTR may bring extra control elements such as upstream ATG/ORFs, as seen with the two trout TNFR1 paralogues, that may impact on translation regulation (Zhang et al., 2019). Introns provide selective advantages to eukaryotic cells, such as regulating gene expression, alternative splicing and nonsense-mediated decay, controlling mRNA transportation and chromatin assembly (Jo and Choi, 2015). Gene expression analysis of paralogues revealed that those with structural change showed large differences and a low correlation coefficient between paralogues (Wang et al., 2019). Thus, change of exon/intron gene organisation might have an impact on gene expression and function.

At the transcript level, expression of four trout TNFR genes is detectable in all the tissues analysed (from healthy fish) and in cell lines, albeit at different levels, suggesting a ubiquitous nature of their expression in rainbow trout. The protein expression levels remain to be determined when isoform-specific antibodies are available in the future. The expression of TNFR1 paralogues is higher than that

of the TNFR2 paralogues in most tissues and cell lines, in accord with the ubiquitous expression of TNFR1 and more limited expression of TNFR2 seen in mammals (Yang et al., 2018). However, the paralogues are differentially expressed in a tissue- and cell line-specific manner, suggesting functional diversification.

The expression of TNFR1 and TNFR2 paralogues is high in immune organs, such as spleen, head kidney and gills in rainbow trout, as seen in Japanese flounder (Park et al., 2003), suggesting important roles in the fish immune response as in mammals (Puimege et al., 2014). Their expression is low in liver, especially for TNFR1 paralogues. Liver is an important immune organ involved in acute phase reactions, that under stress and infections produces large quantities of inflammatory substances including TNF (Khansari et al., 2019). The low levels of expression of TNFR1 paralogues in resident liver cells may prevent excessive TNFR1 signaling leading to inflammatory shock and apoptosis. The high level expression of TNFR1 and TNFR2 in muscle may reflect the direct action of TNF α on skeletal muscle shown in mammals (Li, 2003) and in rainbow trout (Vraskou et al., 2011). Another interesting observation is the high level expression of the TNFR2 paralogues in non-immune organs including heart, caudal kidney, muscle and gonad. TNF binding to TNFR2 activates NF- κ B and PI3/Akt pathways that maintain survival and enhance proliferation (Yang et al., 2018), suggesting an important role of the TNF/TNFR2 axis in these organs.

Trout TNF receptors can be modulated in a gene-, cell line- and stimulant-dependent manner. In general, the expression of TNFR1 paralogues is higher constitutively but less responsive to stimulation with PAMPs and recombinant cytokines than TNFR2 paralogues, especially for TNFR2a, in the four cell lines tested. The cell type-dependent modulation of TNF receptor expression may be of relevance in terms of curbing inflammatory signals to keep a balance between survival and death signals. It is known that TNF α expression can be induced in these cell lines by LPS, poly I:C, IFN γ and TNF α , and is highly induced *in vivo* by bacterial and viral infection (Hong et al., 2013). The expression of TNFR1 paralogues was refractory to stimulation in the epithelial-like RTL and RTGill cells. In contrast, TNFR2a is highly induced by polyI:C and IFN γ . In RTG-2 and RTS-11 cells, TNFR1 paralogues can be up-regulated but to a lower extent and more transiently compared to TNFR2a. The preferential up-regulation of TNFR2 expression may enhance survival and proliferation to maintain an intact epithelium and help tissue-repair after an insult.

It seems that IFN γ is a potent inducer of trout TNF receptor expression, as seen in carp (Grayfer and Belosevic, 2009) and mammals (Aggarwal et al., 1985; Tsujimoto et al., 1986). Poly I:C can also up-regulate TNFR expression especially for TNFR2, but LPS has only minor effects. The poor responsiveness to LPS in trout cells may be due to the loss of TLR4 in the genome, as seen in most

fish species, and even when present (as in zebrafish) does not appear to bind LPS (Sepulcre et al., 2009). The expression of trout TNFR1a, TNFR1b and TNFR2a can be up-regulated by TNF α in RTS-11 cells but TNFR2b was refractory. Interestingly, goldfish TNF α up-regulates TNFR2 expression but down-regulates TNFR1 expression in monocytes (Grayfer and Belosevic, 2009). Whether this inconsistency is due to species-specific regulation or to cell type/developmental stage differences remains to be determined.

Conclusion: Two paralogues of TNFR1 and TNFR2 are present in salmonids. Whilst the TNFR2 paralogues were generated via the 4R salmonid WGD, the TNFR1 paralogues arose from a local en bloc duplication. Functional diversification of TNFR paralogues was evidenced by differential gene expression and modulation, upstream ATGs affecting translation, ATTTA motifs in the 3'-UTR regulating mRNA stability, and post-translational modification by N-glycosylation. Teleost and tetrapod TNFR1 and TNFR2 orthologues differ in exon/intron organization. Trout TNF receptors are highly expressed in immune tissues/organs, and in other tissues in a gene- and tissue-specific manner. Their expression can be differentially modulated by PAMPs and cytokines in a cell type- and stimulant-specific manner, suggesting an important role of the TNF/TNFR axis in the immune response and other physiological processes in fish.

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Figure legend

Fig. 1. Multiple alignment of rainbow trout TNFR1 paralogues with TNFR1 molecules from other fish and mammalian species. The multiple alignment was produced using Clustal Omega, and conserved amino acids were shaded using BOXSHADE (V3.21). The signal peptide, the four cysteine rich domains (CRD1-4), the transmembrane domain and the death domain are indicated above the alignment. The aa sequence of the signal peptide and transmembrane domain are in green, and the conserved cysteine residues in the CRD domains are in red. Potential N-glycosylation sites in CRD1 and CRD4 are highlighted in blue.

Fig. 2. Multiple alignment of rainbow trout TNFR2 paralogues with TNFR2 molecules from other fish and mammalian species. The multiple alignment was produced using Clustal Omega, and conserved amino acids were shaded using BOXSHADE (V3.21). The signal peptide, the four cysteine rich domains (CRD1-4) and the transmembrane domain are indicated above the alignment. The aa sequence of the signal peptide and transmembrane domain are in green, and the conserved cysteine residues in the CRD domains are in red. Potential N-glycosylation sites in CRD1 and CRD4 are highlighted in blue.

Fig. 3 A unrooted phylogenetic tree of selected vertebrate TNFRSF members. The phylogenetic tree was constructed using amino acid multiple alignments of TNFR1, TNFR2, and other closely related TNFRSF members (TNFR3,5,10,14) from selected vertebrates, and the neighbour-joining method within the MEGA7.0 program. The evolutionary distances were computed using the JTT matrix-based method with all ambiguous positions removed for each sequence pair. Node values represent percent bootstrap confidence derived from 10,000 replications. The accession number for each sequence is given after the species and molecule names. The trout molecules cloned in this study are highlighted in red and grouping of TNFRSF members are indicated on the right.

Fig. 4. The TNFR1 (A) and TNFR2 (B) loci of rainbow trout and pike. The information was extracted from genomic DNA sequences at NCBI under accession numbers NC_025987 (pike TNFR1), NC035079 (trout TNFR1a and TNFR1b), NC_025984 (pike TNFR2), NC035093 (trout TNFR2a) and NC035083 (trout TNFR2b).

Fig. 5. Comparison of gene organisation of the TNFR1 (A) and TNFR2 (B) in rainbow trout, flounder, humans and chicken. Boxes represent exons, and lines between exons represent introns. The white and black boxes represent non-coding and amino acid (aa) coding regions, respectively. The sizes (bp) of each exon are numbered in the boxes. The gene organization of the rainbow trout TNFR1 and 2 genes was predicted using the Splign program based on the sequence information from Table 1 and Figs. S1–S4 in Supplementary Materials. The accession numbers for other genes are

XM_020093063/NW_017859661 (flounder TNFR1), AB080947/NW_017859683 (flounder TNFR2), ENSG00000067182 (human TNFR1), ENSG00000028137 (human TNFR2), ENSGALG00000039461 (chicken TNFR1) and ENSGALG00000034213 (chicken TNFR2). The TNFR protein domains (SP=signal peptide, TM=transmembrane domain) and corresponding coding exon regions are indicated.

Fig. 6. Transcript expression of rainbow trout TNFR1 and TNFR2 paralogues in tissues. The expression level was determined by RT-qPCR in 17 tissues from six healthy fish. The transcript level was calculated using a serial dilution of references that contained equal molar amounts of the probes for each gene, then normalized against the expression level of EF-1 α and presented as the average + SEM. The connected bars indicate significant differences in expression levels of paralogues ($p < 0.05$, paired samples T test).

Fig. 7. Modulation of the expression of TNFR1 (A, C, E and G) and 2 (B, D, F and H) paralogues in four cell lines by PAMPs and IFN γ . Four trout cell lines, RTL, RTG-2, RTGill and RTS-11 cells were stimulated with LPS (25 $\mu\text{g/ml}$), poly I:C (25 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) and recombinant IFN γ (10 ng/ml) for 4, 8 and 24 h. The expression of TNF receptors was quantified as in Fig. 6, and presented as the mean (+SEM, N=4) fold change calculated by the average expression level of treated samples divided by that of time-matched controls. The relative significance of a LSD post hoc test after a significant one-way ANOVA between the stimulated and time-matched controls is shown above the bars as * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$ and *** $p \leq 0.001$.

Fig. 8. Modulation of the expression of TNFR1 and TNFR2 paralogues in RTS-11 by TNF α . RTS-11 cells were stimulated with 10 ng/ml recombinant TNF α 3 for 4-72 h. The expression of TNF receptors was quantified as in Fig. 6, and presented as the mean (+SEM, N=4) fold change calculated by the average expression level of treated samples divided by that of time-matched controls. The relative significance of a LSD post hoc test after a significant one-way ANOVA between the stimulated and time-matched controls is shown above the bars as * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$ and *** $p \leq 0.001$.

Table 1. Primers used for 3'-RACE and real-time PCR analysis of gene expression

Gene	Primer name	Sequence (5' to 3')	Application
TNFR1a	TNFR1aF1	CGCGATTTAATACCCTGGCGTA	3'-RACE
	TNFR1aF2	GGTGACTCGACTGCATCGCC	3'-RACE
	TNFR1aF	CACATCCCCTCCCAATGGC	Real-time PCR
	TNFR1aR	CCTCTTGGATCAGCCTCCGAGT	Real-time PCR
TNFR1b	TNFR1bF1	ACTTAACACCCTGGCTTCTCTTGG	3'-RACE
	TNFR1bF2	TTTGGAGACTCGACTGCATCACT	3'-RACE
	TNFR1bF	GCACAGATCCCCTCCCAAACCT	Real-time PCR
	TNFR1bR	CCTCTTGGATCAGCCTCCGAGT	Real-time PCR
TNFR2a	TNFR2aF1	GACTTTTCTCAAGATCTTAAAGGGGCA	3'-RACE
	TNFR2aF2	CAAGATCTTAAAGGGGCAATAATAATTGT	3'-RACE
	TNFR2aF	GGAAATTGGGAGGCCATTAAATTTGATA	Real-time PCR
	TNFR2aR	GACTAGATGGCAAGGGACTGGTAGG	Real-time PCR
TNFR2b	TNFR2bF1	GCAAAGACGCCCTCAGTTTCC	3'-RACE
	TNFR2bF2	GGTTTCAGTATGGACTTTTTCGCAAT	3'-RACE
	TNFR2bF	GGAAAGGAGGCCATTAAATGTCTGC	Real-time PCR
	TNFR2bR	CAGATGTCAGAGGGCTGGTGGA	Real-time PCR
EF-1 α	EF-1 α F	CAAGGATATCCGTCGTGGCA	Real-time PCR
	EF-1 α R	ACAGCGAAACGACCAAGAGG	Real-time PCR

Table 2. Summary of sequence features of rainbow trout TNFR1 and TNFR2 paralogues

Gene	TNFR1a	TNFR1b	TNFR2a	TNFR2b
cDNA sequence				
GenBank ID	HE717002	HE717003	HE717004	HE717005
Length (bp)	3027	2688	1814	2403
Upstream ATG	2	2	0	1
ATTTA motif	1	4	0	2
Genomic sequence				
Chromosome	Ch3	Ch3	Ch17	Ch7
GenBank ID	NC_035079	NC_035079	NC_035093	NC_035083
Length (bp)	12,367	9,901	24,309	7,461
Number of exons	10	10	9	9
Number of introns	9	9	8	8
Protein sequence				
Full length (aa)	403	397	455	463
Signal peptide	28	31	25	25
Mature peptide	375	366	430	438
TM region	217-241	215-239	249-272	281-304
N-glycosylation sites	2	1	3	2
Amino acid identity				
Trout TNFR1a	100	80.2	21.5	20.2
Salmon TNFR1a	85.5	82.4	21.9	21.2
Trout TNFR1b	80.2	100	21.5	19.4
Salmon TNFR1b	79.8	93.0	21.2	20.8
Pike TNFR1	54.1	57.8	22.2	21.2
Human TNFR1	26.8	26.2	22.0	21.9
Chicken TNFR1	26.7	28.4	20.0	19.3
Trout TNFR2a	21.7	21.5	100	63.6
Salmon TNFR2a	22.1	21.5	91.2	64.4
Trout TNFR2b	19.5	19.7	63.6	100
Salmon TNFR2b	21.7	21.3	59.6	87.2
Pike TNFR2	18.5	20.2	46.2	45.9
Human TNFR2	20.4	23.0	28.6	30.1
ChickenTNFR2	22.7	23.6	29.9	27.6

Figure 1

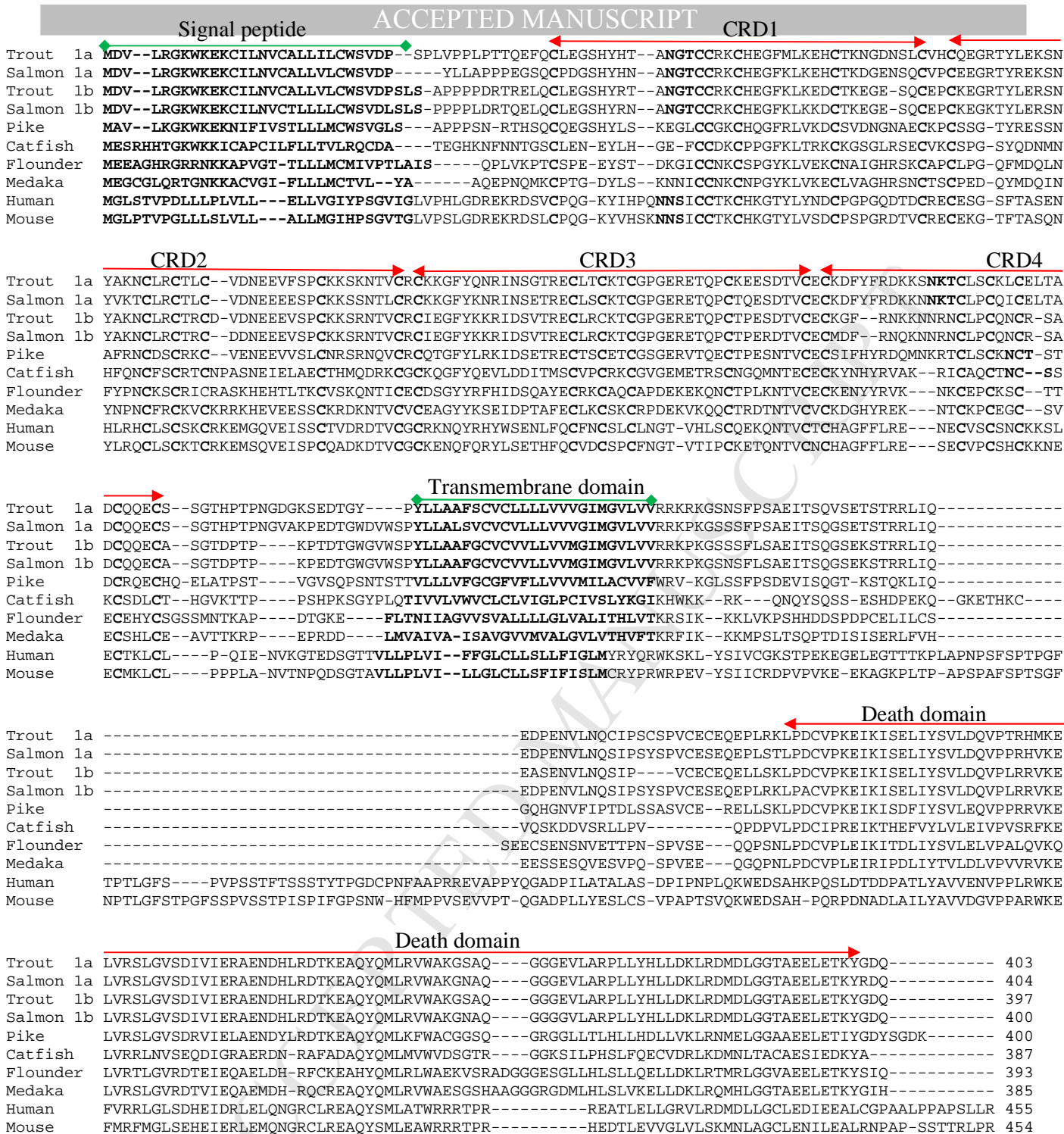


Figure 2

		Signal peptide		ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT		CRD1	
Trout	2a	MILSTVSGILTVRILLAIMVQRVEN	-----	TVYTLPTPDSDAETCRNKTA	EYYNTLINLCCSKCAPGTRLKNECSTSDTVCEPC	SGQYSGT	
Salmon	2a	MILNTVSGIFTVRILLAITVQPVEN	-----	TVYTLPTPDSDADACRNKIAEYYNTPRNL	CCSKCAPGTRQKNECSTSDTVCEPC	PRGQYSGN	
Trout	2b	MILRTVSGVLTVRIFLAIMVQPVEN	-----	MVYTLPTPDSDGSCRNKTA	EYYNPVNLCCSKCTSGTRRKVVCSSTSDTACEPC	SPDQYSGT	
Salmon	2b	MILRTVSGVLTVRIFLAIMVQPVEN	-----	MMVHFMVPSLQVYTLPTAPDSDGSHCNKTA	EYYNNAEVLNCCSKCTSGTRRKDLCSSTSDTACEPC	PRGQYSGT	
Catfish		MNVGLRCLILGVVASLAKA	-----	KSYSILPY--EINGACRDRST	EYKVKVS--FCCSKCKPGTRKERDCT	STEDTVCPVCPDGMYSN	
Flounder		MKEIRALLLLLCVTRTTA	-----	YRLSDSGKCHNSTTEYREQD--	LCCKKCPPGQRLIQKCS	DATESVCKQCD	SGQYMEK
Medaka		MGDLFVLLLLLSVQTTKA	-----	NSHESICNENT-EYLKDGTDLCCKK	CQPGYHLGEHCSENKETVCEPC	SKNTYLEN	
Tilapia		MKDMLLLLFLCAQTIKVC	-----	TPYK-SENGQCHNDT-EYMDSG--	LCCTKCRPGYRRGTSCTET	TDVCTPCPPDQYQEN	
Human		MAPVAVVAALAVGLELWAAHA	-----	LPAQVAFTPYAEPFGSTCRLR--	EYYDQTAQMCCKSCSPGQ	HAKVFC	TKTSDTVCDSCEDSTYTQL
Mouse		MAPAALWVALVFELQLWATGHT	-----	VPAQVVLTPYKPEPGYECQISQ-	EYYDRKAQMCACKCPPGQYV	KHFCNK	TSDTVACDCEASMYTQV
		CRD2		CRD3			
Trout	2a	FNYFTKCFRC-PKCS	EDKGLQYAQDCSSTTKTQCMCQTGKFCIM-EQHNP	-CKE	CGSYTHCQPGHGAIEGT-----	TSDSVN	CAPCNGTFS
Salmon	2a	FNYFPKCFRC-PKCS	EDKGLQYAQDCSSTTKTQCMCQTGMFCIM-EQHNP	-CEE	CVSYTHCQPGHGAIEGT-----	TSDSVN	CAPCPDGTFS
Trout	2b	FNYFPKCFRC-PKCS	ADKGLKYVQKCSSTTKTQACQCTGMYCIL-DQHPD	-CKE	CSYTYCKPGHGVSV	VEGT-----	AESDVE
Salmon	2b	FNYFAKCFRC-PKCS	ADKGLKYVQKCSSTTKTQACQCTGMYCIVL-NQHPD	-CEE	CANLTYCKPGYGVSV	VEGTIAGQ	EAGTAESDVE
Catfish		MNYYPNCFSC-TRCY	EDKGMQYAKQCTRVSDAVCVCKPGWYCIHSDSDPS-CTSCQKHRC	CIPGKGAISPGT-----	ATENVK	CAVCEPGTYS	SNE
Flounder		WNYAQKCLSC-NKCK	SNKGLQYAQRCSSTTRTGCVCKPGMYCIMDFDNPY-CAEC	RNYSQC	RAGYGVSLPGK-----	ANS	SVKCELCPDGMFS
Medaka		WNYAQNCFSC-KICN	PRKLLRYEQNTLTNAVCVCEPETFCAI-LLKPE-CSACK	RYRKCP	PGQGVSVQGT-----	PSSDVK	CQKCPNGTFSSI
Tilapia		FNYYPNCATC-QK	CREEKGLQYAQCSSTTPSKCICRPGRYCIMGYDDPY-CSD	CRKYKQCR	PGTGVTAKGT-----	PSSDVK	CKPCPGTFSDK
Human		WNWPECLSCGSR	CSDDQ--VETQACTREQNRIC	TRPGWYCAL-SKQEG-CRL	CAPLRKCRPGFVARPGT-----	ETSDV	VCKPCAPGTFSNT
Mouse		WNQFRTCLSCSS	CTTDQ--VEIRACTKQNRV	CACEAGRYCAL-KTHSGS	CRQCMRLSKCGPGFVASSRA-----	PNGNV	LCKACAPGTFS
		CRD4					
Trout	2a	HSYTQTCQHHTDCVS	QRRGVLTYGNTTSSNAVCG----	PKVR-----	PPTRPPTTIPTSGTGHTT	PSLQNLHI-----	
Salmon	2a	HSYTQTCQHHTDCVS	QRRSVLTYGNTTSSNAVCG----	PKVR-----	PPTSPPTTIPTSGTGHTT	PSLQSLHT-----	
Trout	2b	HSYTQICQHHTDCVS	QGRDVQTYGTATTDAVCG----	PKVNGRLVSILQTTTP	SPPTTTPPSVKEHTTSSLQ	SMDSTVPTTLGSKLTSSPS----	DP
Salmon	2b	YSYTQICQHHTDCVS	QGRDVLTYGATTDAVCG----	PKVNGRLVSILQTTTP	SPPTTTPPSGKHTTSSLQ	SMDTSTVPTTRGSKLTSSPS----	DP
Catfish		TS-TKPC	LPHTRCDLYCRSVLVRGTATTDTVCG----	PVLST-----	VPSRVTTCLPTIMPKTSS	SPTPESTM----	PPFLT
Flounder		SSNTET	CTCPHTDC--HGKA	VVRKGNNTTSDTVCEE	GVAPSSL-----	FQDTTKGPHPGILFST	PRTIRSTV
Medaka		SSNSEK	CPHTDC--KGRAL	VKKGDAISDNICE	DEA-PKPL-----	KRATPRAPVVI	VLSTEANNPGTTIDFTT
Tilapia		TSSTDPC	QHTDC--NGRA	VLKGNNTTSDTVCE--	PYST-----	ADNHKKGV	GTTPSTSTTVAPSSG
Human		TSSTDIC	PHQIC--NVVA	IPGNASMDAVCT--	STSP-----	TRSMAP	GAVHLPPVSTRS
Mouse		TSSTDV	CRPHRIC--SILA	IPGNASTDAVCA--	PESP-----	TLAIPRTL	VVSQPE
		Transmembrane domain					
Trout	2a	-----GGKSP	GFDLRIVSGVIGGVIGGVILLIIGTVIY--	KKAF	IGSRLVSSIEDRNGNWEA	IKFDS	DGPMVL-QNSS
Salmon	2a	-----EGKSP	GFDLRIVSGVIGGVIGGVILLIIGTVIY--	KKVFT	GSRLVSTEDNHNCEA	IKFDS	DGPMVL-QNSS
Trout	2b	LVIAP	MEEKSPGVDLWIVVGAIGGVM--FLLLIIGTVIY--	KKAF	TKFIRVSTEDING-----		KEAIKCLL
Salmon	2b	RVIAP	TEEKSPGINLWIVVGAIGGAM--FLLLIIGTVIY--	KKAF	TNFIRVSTEDINGNSE-----		KEAIKCLL
Catfish		PVYSP--	RPPDRFIALWFLPVAAAL--LMVLLIATFCIC--	HRK	ALAKPAVHVEAGQS-----	LNSVHLSS--	TEKEGLLAD--
Flounder		TIKSP	PPYKPPGGS--LAA-IIAGVM	GILLFIAVILVFLC--	KAVRSKDVPTFPKVD	ANGNCESDDKQITQSHLEET	QLISFTVTSPEQQS
Medaka		STKSP	HTTKQPDIKP-VVIA	SSVVGIFLLLTFFVSLFFY--	KRRRTDSAKLHPKVD	ANGNCENGKIKVQRHEVER	QKMGEL----
Tilapia		LITS	RVLT-QQPSKYVIIIASVTGFLIITIPLLLFLLCYY-QK	ICKKDTASLSPKVD	ANGNCETADEKYTGKTQLSLF	KVA----	SQENEC
Human		--PSP	PAEGST-GDFA	VLKGLIVGVTALGLLIIGVNCVIMTQV--	KKKPLCLQREAKVPHLPADK	ARGTQ--	GPEQQHLLITAP
Mouse		--STPI	EQSTKGGISLPIGLIVGVTSLGLLMLGLVNCIILVQ--	RKKK	PSCLQRDAKVPHPVDEKSQDAV-----		GLEQQHLLTTAP
Trout	2a	-----CSNPS	QAENQQDTRRTWV-S-----	ECSN	SLEGLS-----	IGPLQSTPPQ	SST--QPS
Salmon	2a	-----CSNPS	QAENQQDTRRTWV-S-----	GCSN	SLEGLS-----	IGPLQSTPPQ	PST--QPS
Trout	2b	-----CSNVG	QAETQQDAVKTWSGS-----	GCSN	SLEGLS-----	ICPVQSTLPQ	PSI--LASTP
Salmon	2b	-----CSNVG	QAETQQDAIKTWSGS-----	GCSN	SLDGLS-----	ISPVQSTIPQ	PSI--LASTP
Catfish		-----SSSDP	STSSSDSHSQ-----			GTGVSQDCI	HAEQPAVSSPVLNLSITATFNCQVN
Flounder		ACNDY	SQSSINTETLIRTD	SGSHESISPLQSTVALNNSYPARSEPKILIS	NTPEASSQPTFP	SESSSQPTSPPIISPLT	SPHFNVNITVH-----
Medaka		AGSE	SQCSN	SSDTSTKPDNFI	SNP-STLLSKSDFNNP	IFALSEPMTLLSNPEAVTPQPSIPAQ	PSQPTSPQIISPVTDRPHVNITVH-----
Tilapia		ASSD	SHCTTNTETLRTD	GCSSQESISPLHSTFALDNPLSVLSEPMTLLSNIESA	APQPSIQ	TQSSQPS	SPQIITPMTTSPHVNITLH-----
Human		-----SSSSS	LESSASALDRRA-----	PTRNQ	QAPG-----	V-EASGAGE	ARAS--TGSSDSSPGHGTQVNVTCIVNVCSSDHSSQCS
Mouse		-----SSSSS	LESSASAGDRRA-----	PPGHP	QARV-----	MAEAQGFQ	EARAS--SRISDSSHGSHGTHVNVCIVNVCSSDHSSQCS
Trout	2a	LGNG	SCATPTSTHIDSSQADPELPLSREEEVHVNMPQ-----	QEGG	KEALTAIQESGNVY-----		455
Salmon	2a	IGNG	SCPTPTSTHIDSSQADPELPLSREEEVVNMPQ-----	QEGG	KEALTAIQESGNDV-----		455
Trout	2b	IGNEL	CSRPTSTQIDSPQADPETPLSREEEVVNMPQ-----	RES	CKEALTPVQEF	GNV-----	463
Salmon	2b	IGNEL	CSRPTSTQIDSPQADPEAPLSREEEVVNMPQ-----	REG	CKEALTA	VQEF	GNV-----
Catfish		PATG	CSIPSPCVH--QPE	FEPLSQEEELC-ISCE-----	QEDSKDAIQSV	QESGMTKY-----	418
Flounder		IGNG	SCGTPSVMPTHLTES	SYLPPFGEESF-SIPQ-----	QEDGKQPPRS	VQDSAS-----	483
Medaka		IGNG	SYQT-VNPID	TQAECQLPFEEEDWSV--STPK-----	QEEG	QTCESVPESGANSTYIIPKQFATCKQAE	495
Tilapia		IGNG	SCGTPAFIPADLIKPDCKLPYGEESF-STPQ-----	QEDG	QSLMSVPESSTYCTE	HEQDSYA-----	491
Human		SQAS	TMGTDSSPESLQKQVFP	SKEECFA-RSQLET	PETLLSGTE	EKLPLPLGVPDAGMKPS-----	461
Mouse		SQAS	ATVGDPAKPSASP	KDEQVPFSQEECP-SQPC	ETTETLGSHE-PLPLGVPD	MGKPSQAGWFDQIAVKVA--	474

Figure 3

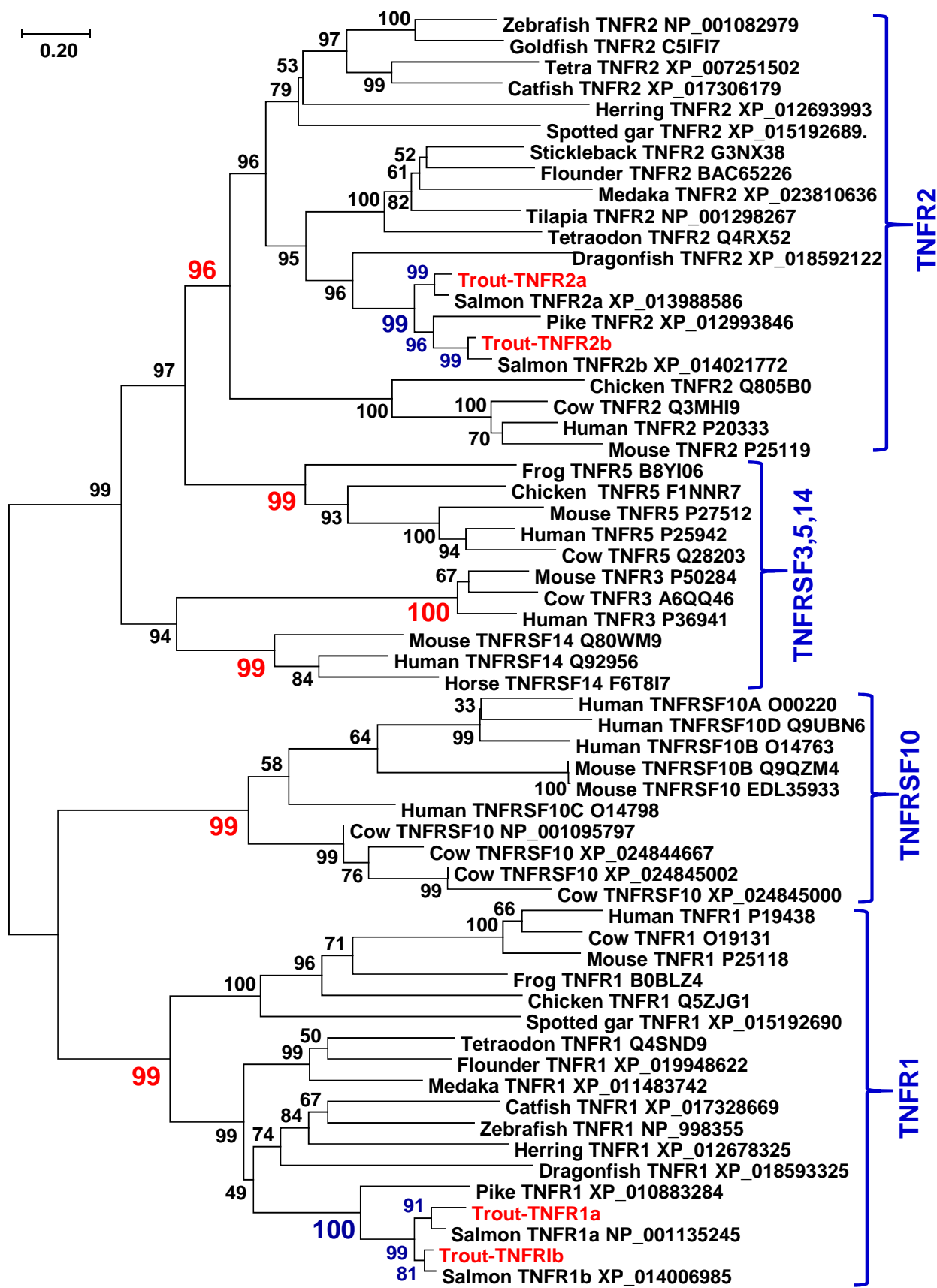
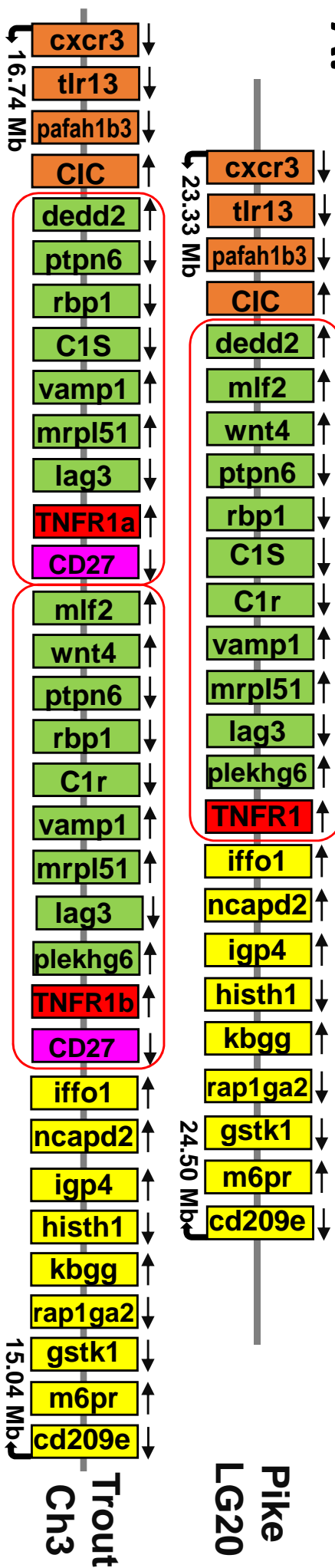


Figure 4

A.



B.

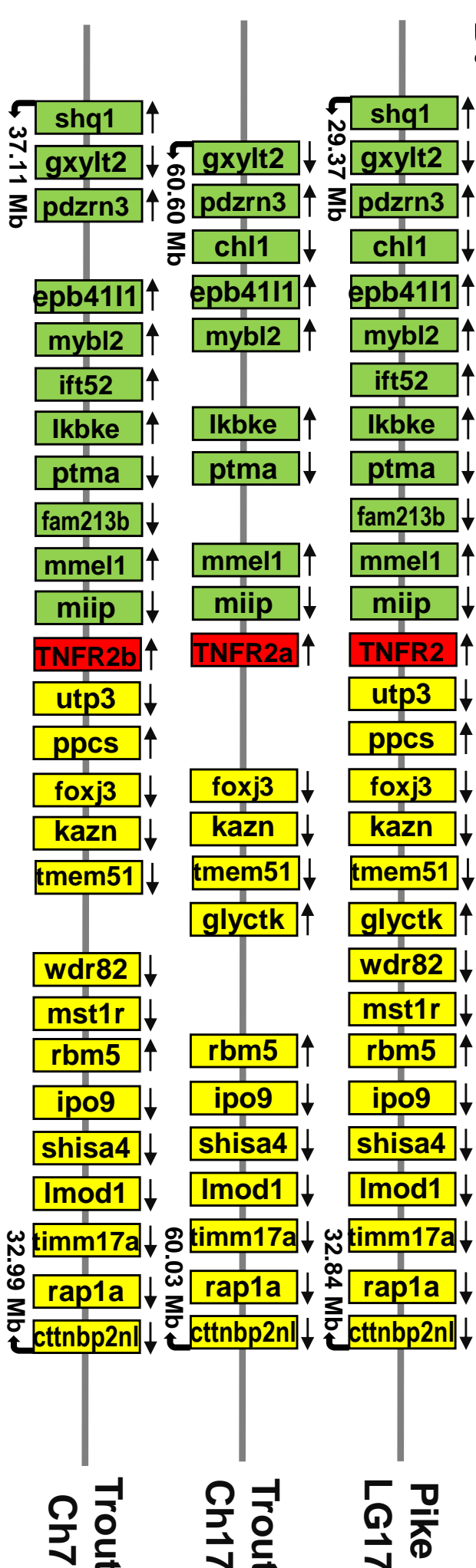


Figure 5

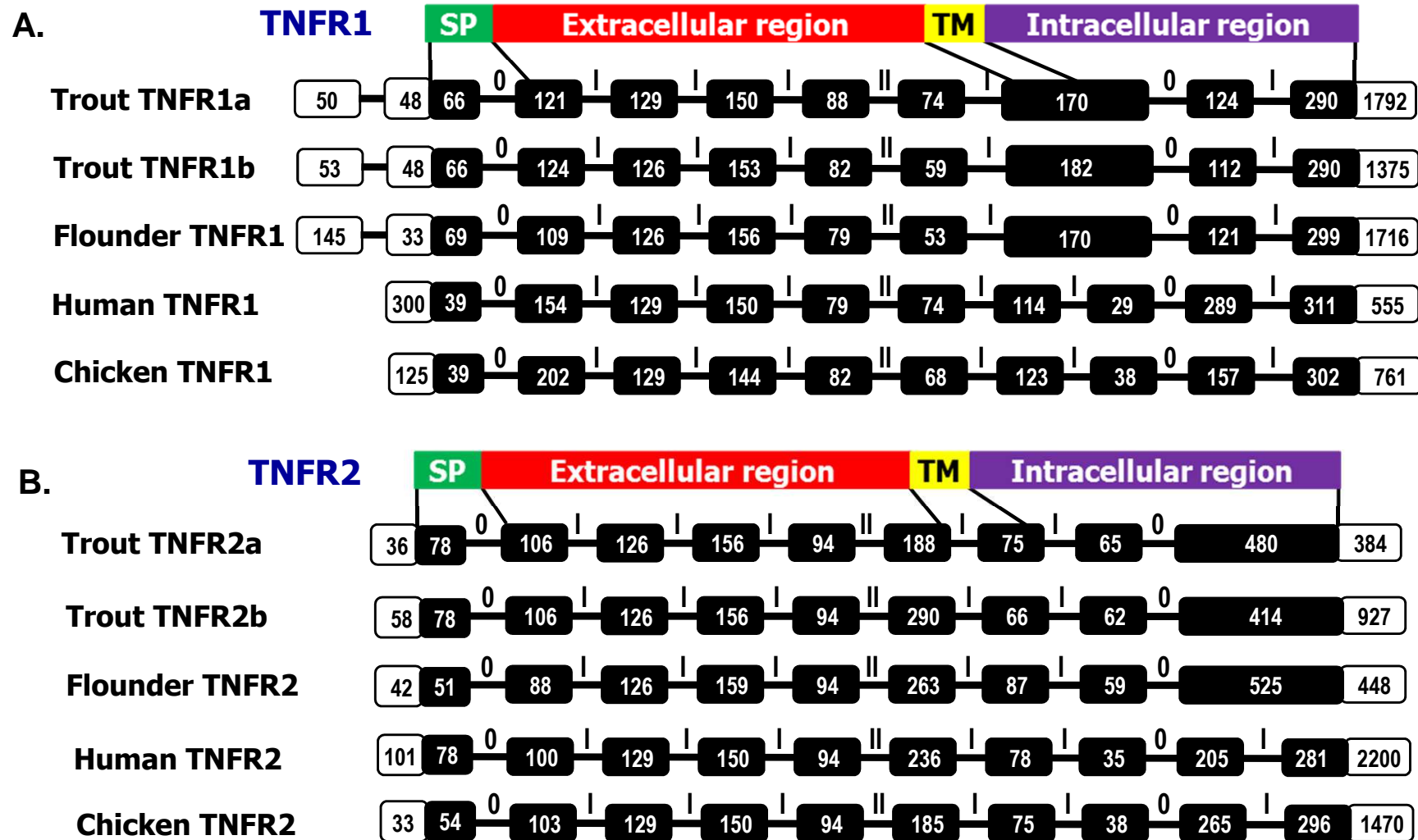


Figure 6

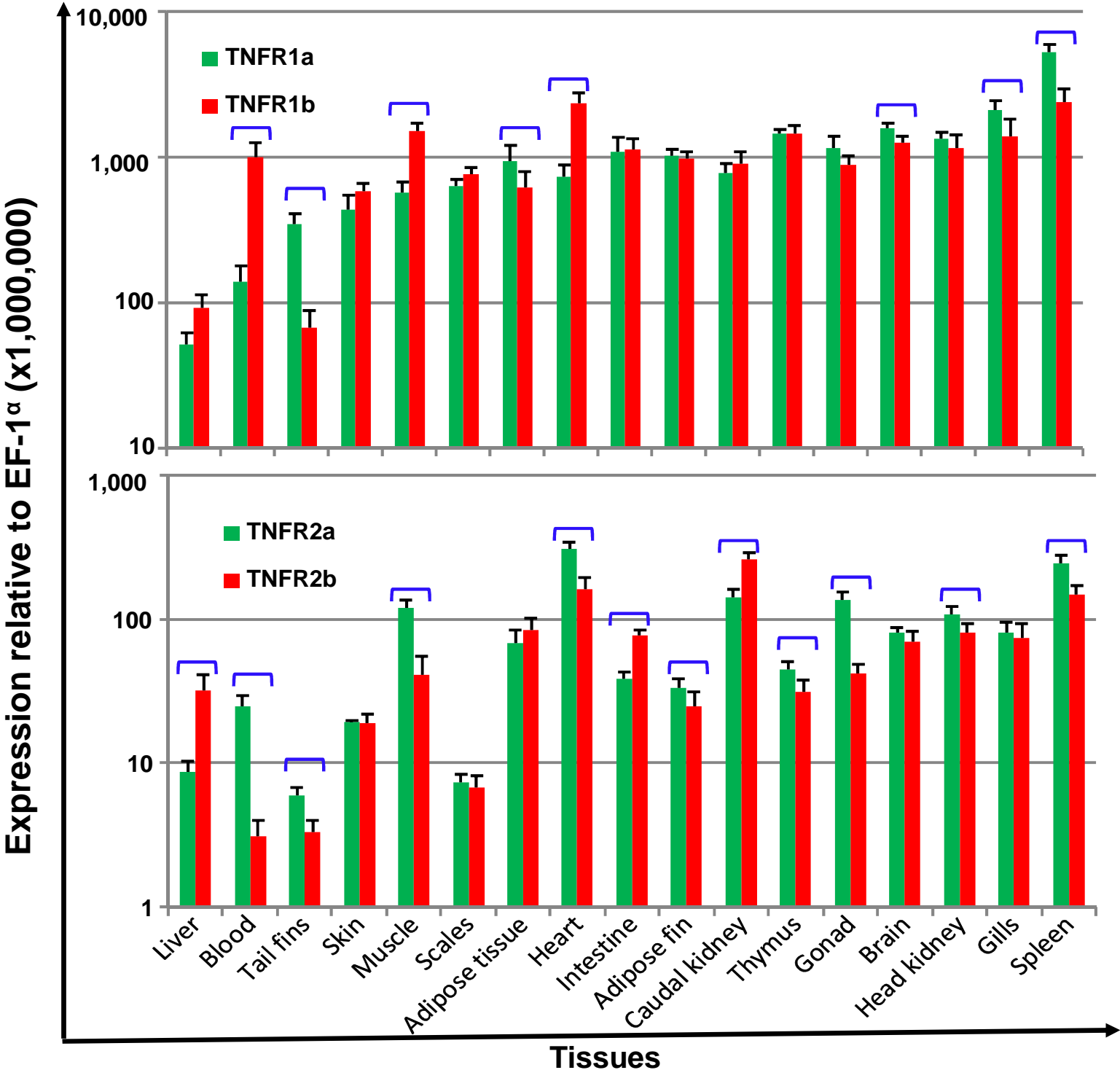


Figure 7

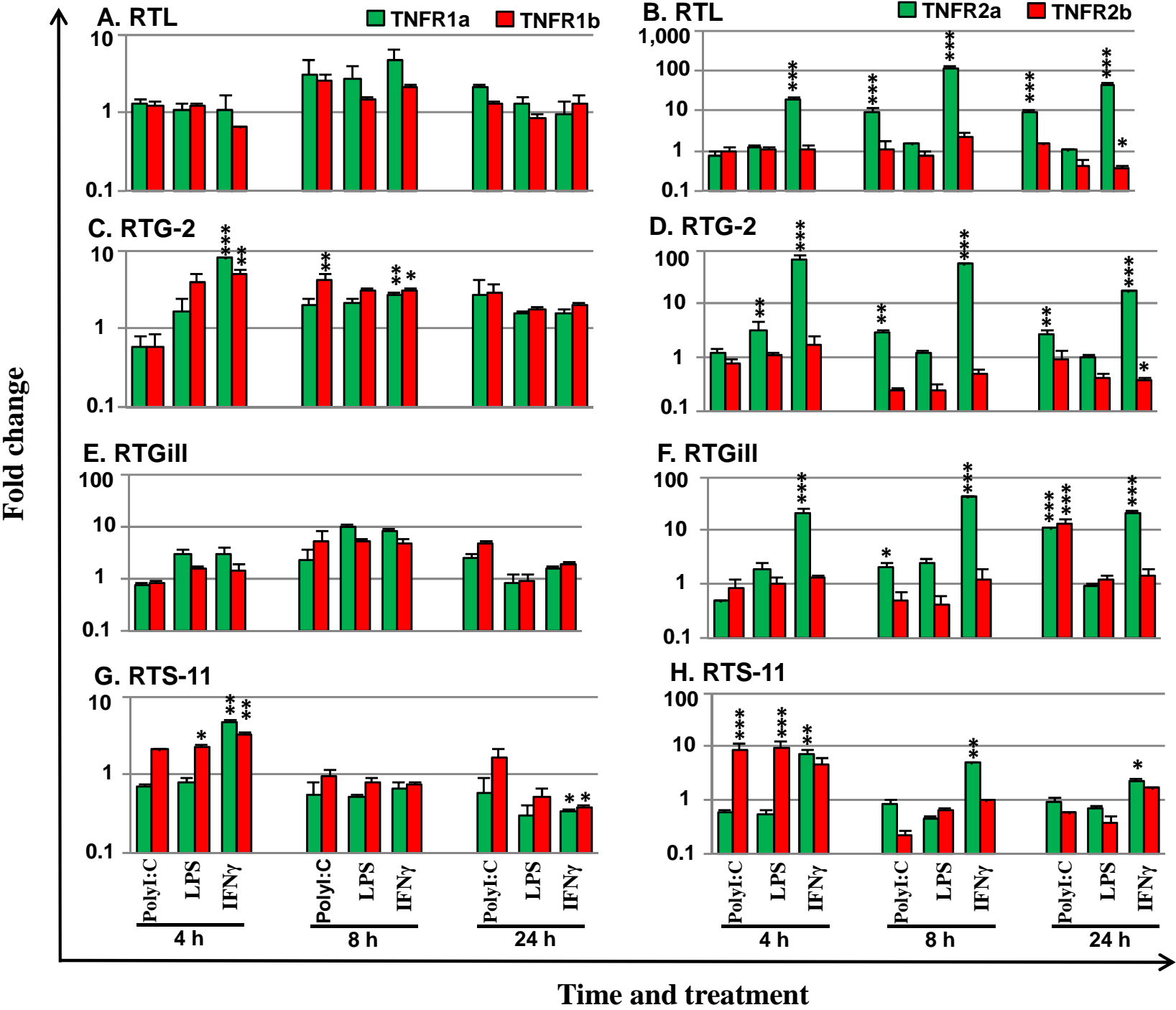
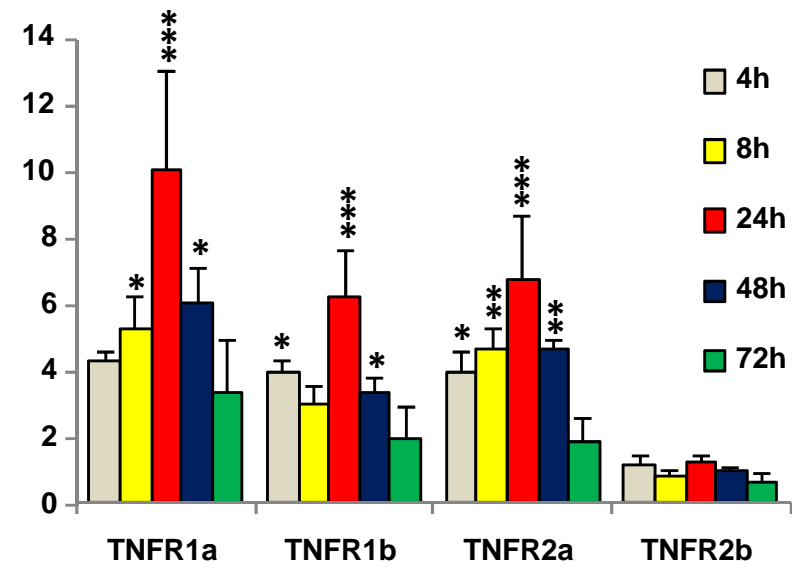


Figure 8



Highlights

1. Two paralogues for each of TNFR1 and TNFR2 are present in salmonids.
2. TNFR2 paralogues arose from the 4R WGD but TNFR1 paralogues arose from an en bloc duplication.
3. Teleost and tetrapod TNFR1 and TNFR2 orthologues differ in exon/intron structure.
4. Trout TNF receptors are ubiquitously expressed with high level expression in immune organs.
5. Trout TNF receptors can be differentially modulated by PAMPs and cytokines.